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ABSTRACT

This guide addresses several issues related to the evaluation of drug abuse prevention programs for minorities, including: (1) planning; (2) the role of the evaluator; (3) selection of an evaluation methodology; (4) selection of data collection instruments; (5) selection and training of data collection staff; (6) collection and analysis of data; (7) reporting the findings; and (8) use of the evaluation results for program improvement. (Author/APM)

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A GUIDE TO MULTICULTURAL DRUG ABUSE PREVENTION: EVALUATION

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PREFACE

The booklets in this resource guide were designed to provide information about concepts, techniques and strategies that can assist minority* communities in developing and evaluating drug abuse prevention programs to meet the specific needs of their neighborhoods, barrios, reservations, and towns.

These booklets are not "how to" publications. Every community, when viewed in terms of its needs, preferences, financial resources, and most importantly, inner strengths, is unique. There are no standard blueprints to address the needs of each ethnic community. The members of the community must work closely together to find solutions to common problems. We hope that these booklets will provide some guidance to beginning the process of community involvement in drug abuse prevention.

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*the words "minority" and "ethnics of color" will be used interchangeably in this booklet. Many people feel that the term "minority" refers to a status of powerlessness within the system, and thus prefer "ethnics of color."

How to Use this Booklet

This booklet on evaluation, the last in the series, presents an overview of evaluation in multicultural communities for both the program manager and the evaluator.

This Guide to Multicultural Drug Abuse Prevention series includes:

Booklet 1: Introduction
Booklet 2: Needs Assessment
Booklet 3: Strategies
Booklet 4: Resources
Booklet 5: Funding
Booklet 6: Evaluation

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THE PURPOSE OF THIS GUIDE

This booklet addresses some issues relating to the evaluation of drug prevention programs for minorities. It is designed to encourage a thoughtful approach to program evaluation that takes into consideration the cultural orientation of the target population in:

- planning for evaluation;
- determining the role of the evaluator;
- selecting an evaluation methodology;
- selecting or designing data collection instruments;
- selecting and training staff for data collection;
- collecting and analyzing the data;
- reporting the findings; and
- using evaluation results for program improvement.

This booklet has been developed primarily for prevention program planners and administrators who are not particularly knowledgeable about program evaluation. It does not present the definitive model for evaluating multicultural drug abuse prevention — none exists. It should be a useful tool, however, to assist programs in working with internal or external evaluators. Although not designed specifically for them, evaluators will be interested in reviewing this and other booklets in the series for a discussion of multicultural concerns in evaluation

While a highly technical discussion on implementing evaluations is beyond the scope of this booklet, extensive references on research and evaluation among minorities and a bibliography are provided. Other resources which should prove helpful are NIDA's recently published "Prevention Evaluation Guidelines" and its National Prevention Resource Network (NPERN, One West Wilson Street, Room 434, Madison, Wisconsin 53702).

INTRODUCTION

Human service programs, especially in the prevention field, are increasingly being required to conduct evaluations, as part of a continuing movement toward the use of evaluation as a tool for program improvement. The demand of policy makers and funding sources for drug abuse prevention programs to prove they "work" is particularly high. Good evaluation designs in this area, therefore, will continue to be sought. Such evaluations must include the same cultural considerations required for planning and implementing programs that have been discussed in the other booklets in this series.

Sensitivity to cultural issues is particularly crucial in the evaluation of prevention programs. This is true because a valid evaluation is basically a mechanism for communicating program effects to decision-makers and persons interested in adopting the program. The evaluation must accurately identify, describe and explain program effects on the target population, the social system within which the program is operating, and the community. This information must also be correctly translated to the interested parties in a useful form.

Cultural groups exist in unique social and psychological contexts which shape attitudes, values, behavior, view of self and the world. It is essential that these contexts be integrated into the development and implementation of evaluations of multicultural drug abuse prevention programs.

Research among minorities, however, is still in its infancy, and program evaluators are just beginning to become sensitive to cultural issues. Many programs targeted to minorities continue to be evaluated with research approaches more appropriate to Anglo-American populations. Some research has been done on Blacks, Hispanics, American Indians/Alaskan Natives, and Asian American/Pacific Islanders. But there is a severe problem in assembling and disseminating what little information there is to evaluators of minority programs. The inability to make program evaluation culturally relevant comes at a time when minority leaders are demanding that government sponsored programs be responsive to their communities' needs. A credible, culturally relevant evaluation can help a drug abuse prevention program bridge the gap between meeting the funding agency's demands for accountability

and being responsive to the ethnic community by adjusting and improving services to better meet their needs.

PROGRAM EVALUATION: WHAT AND WHY

Numerous terms have been coined by evaluators to communicate the purpose, practices, and features of their own version of evaluation. The labels used, however, are far less important than the quality of the information produced. Simply put, program evaluation is a management tool which provides information for measuring and improving the effectiveness of program performance. It has two major functions: decision-making and accountability. To some extent, evaluation involves measurement in that data are systematically collected and analyzed. But it also involves judgment because the data can provide only the basis for decision-making. Decisions based upon sound evaluation procedures, however, are more credible than those based on unstructured impressions because documented evidence can be provided to substantiate them. This does not mean that statistics are essential. As pointed out in later sections of this booklet, qualitative information describes progress more usefully for many programs.

A successful evaluation is not necessarily one which declares that all of the program's goals have been met, but rather is one which tells what and how the program is doing and why. To be useful in decision-making, an evaluation should describe and explain what the drug abuse prevention program is doing. It should provide facts which objectively describe the activities of interest and explain why things are as they are. In doing so, the evaluation should not focus attention on explanations based on the attitudes and behaviors of the participants to the exclusion of the socio-political environment — that is, institutional, social, and cultural arrangements that impinge on them.

With these ingredients, program plans can be made, procedures can be changed, activities can be added or deleted, and support can be justified and obtained from both the funding agency and the community. Thus, evaluation findings can be used to improve a program's public image. Such improvement and decisions can be made during the on-going operation of the program and near or at the end of the program year. Even quite negative findings can be useful for determining corrective action.

Among the practical reasons for evaluation are:

- to identify what kinds of action work most effectively to meet program goals;
- to avoid conducting activities which are unrelated to goals and objectives;

- to analyze program strengths and weaknesses;
- to identify and describe the inputs/processes/ outcomes, stated and unstated;
- to convincingly attribute the impact to program activities;
- to provide data for reports to various groups such as minority community representatives, advisory groups, and funding agencies;
- to meet requirements for program evaluation mandated by a state or federal agency as a condition of funding; and
- to provide information for policy decisions, program planning, and program improvement.

Other roles for evaluation, in addition to the above, can be to advance the state of the art in multicultural drug abuse prevention concepts and practices and to develop methodologies to improve evaluations of multicultural drug abuse prevention programs.

Evaluation can involve intricate statistical designs and procedures. In cases where program evaluation is being carried out on a relatively small scale, however, overly sophisticated techniques are not necessary. The complexity of the evaluation should be directly related to the complexity of the program and the nature of the management decisions to be made.

Throughout this booklet, evaluation is discussed from a positive perspective. However, not all evaluation efforts are for the "good of mankind or science." There are some pitfalls and abuses that exist and planners and evaluators, particularly those that are community based, need to be aware of the most common ones.

Those that are the most obvious and occur most frequently are:

1. "Eye-wash" -- Attempting to justify a weak or ineffective program by deliberately selecting only those portions that "look good".
2. "White-wash" -- Avoiding any objective appraisals.
3. "Postponement" -- Using the study as a delaying tactic.
4. "Posture" -- Trying to look "professional" for the public.
5. "Submarine" -- Using evaluation to destroy a program.

Just as a substantive knowledge of the purpose and eventual use of the evaluation help determine the techniques and process used, this same knowledge helps prevent us from falling into the evaluation "traps" listed.

LEVELS OF EVALUATION

The Prevention Branch of the National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA) uses a program assessment model that specifies three levels of evaluation: process, outcome, and impact. The levels may be considered useful in working with various program modalities and target populations. The relationship among level of evaluation, target group, and modalities is represented in the drug abuse prevention matrix in Exhibit 1.

Process Level

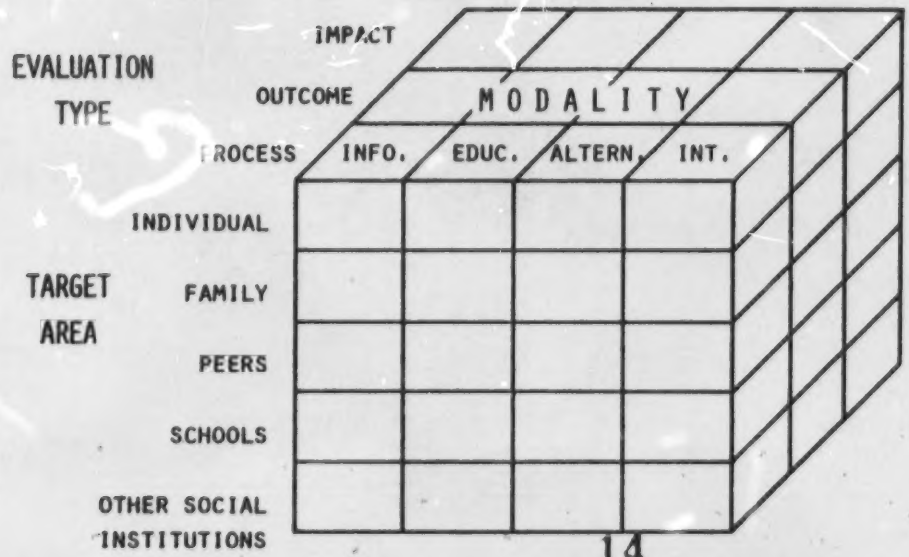
Process evaluation assesses the methods used to implement the program and is defined by NIDA as follows:

> Process information reflects the inputs that go into a program, the patterns in which these inputs interact, and the transactions that take place within the program. Information such as participant and staff characteristics, physical plant characteristics, and financial resources, as well as the theory on which the program operates, needs assessment, policy development, and program design activities are all examples of program inputs. Information derived from the sociopolitical environment is also considered to be important evaluative information because of its potential contribution to subsequent evaluation and its use as a basis for recordkeeping systems. Other assessments on the process level may include a description of services rendered, the decision-making structure, patterns of interaction among participants and staff, and so on (French, et. al., 1979, p. 10).

Many prevention professionals feel that the way in which process data is collected should reflect a sensitivity to the culture. This important fact may determine whether or not accurate "true" information is being collected. Use of written "objective" measurements may not be useful, for instance, in a community that has an established oral tradition. Anita Arkeketa who is a specialist in training American Indian program staff suggests that "...oral assessment (of training) proved to be less intimidating and time consuming and allowed participants to share

EXHIBIT 1

DRUG ABUSE PREVENTION MATRIX



learning in a leisurely manner..."* Her observations in working with Indian programs in the Southwest suggest that participants' level of involvement and quality of participation is enhanced when oral techniques are used. New learning in this area can be facilitated when program developers and evaluators search for and create innovative approaches for collecting such data.

Process data provide decision-making information during the life of the program as well as information for interpreting outcomes. It focuses on the questions: Is the program proceeding as planned? What problems exist in meeting the needs of the community? Are program strategies working? Are they culturally relevant? What are the attitudes and opinions of staff and others regarding the program?

Outcome Level

Outcome evaluation assesses the accomplishments of the program. The following definition is used by NIDA:

> Data gathered during this phase of program evaluation typically are addressed to specific program objectives concerned with change in participant behavior, attitudes, values, or knowledge. The major objectives in all prevention program modalities concern the reduction of inappropriate drug and alcohol use. At the same time, different prevention programs have unique objectives relating to the particular theories underlying them. These include such diverse objectives as improvement of self-concept and responsibility, reduction of alienation, increase in achievement motivation, and improvement in a broad range of variables relating to school performance. And this list is far from exhaustive (French, et. al., 1979, pp 10-11).

Outcomes are the accomplishments of the program not only at its end, but also during its life. If data are collected during the needs assessment on individuals who will be directly affected by the program, these data can be used as a baseline for comparison with the outcome data. For example, the needs assessment data may include measures of attitudes, opinions, or behaviors of teachers, youth workers, and potential program participants that can be used to assess changes in these individuals after the program is implemented. In order for this to be effective, any data that are to be compared should be collected in the same manner, using comparable methodologies and data collection instruments. Needs assessment data have an even broader use as baseline data for the impact evaluation which is discussed in the next section.

*Training of trainers course modification for an American Indian population. Anita Arkeketa, Southwest Regional Support Center, 1980.

Some questions to be addressed by the evaluation of outcomes include: What prevention assistance is available to the culture that was not available before the program began? What problems have been resolved? Were program objectives met? Were there any measurable changes in the behavior of the target population that can be attributed to the program? What were the outcomes of the program that were not planned or expected? Certainly all of these will have different manifestations based on the culture in which the program resides. Tests for measuring self-concept, for example, should be validated to use with certain cultures. When no such tests are available, program developers should seek technical assistance in modifying existing measurements to match such needs. The NIDA NPERN project has compiled lists of evaluators who have skills in these areas. NPERN can make specialists available to programs interested in exploring the use of new measurement techniques.

Some of the ethnic social science organizations (see Booklet 4: Resources) have published bibliographies and lists of persons who have knowledge and have done research in the development of instruments.

This phase of evaluation can assist our program concepts and contribute new and valuable information about prevention from a cultural perspective.

Impact Level

Impact evaluation looks at longer-term, community-wide effects of the program. NIDA defines it as follows:

> Information gathered in this phase relates to longer-term, generalized results of program operations. The manner in which impact data are relayed is a function of the community needs and problems which gave rise to the prevention program in the first place. That is why such broad issues as changes in incidence and prevalence in drug abuse and in community competence to deal with these problems are frequently addressed in impact evaluation. Such changes impinge directly on inputs to the program (French, et. al., 1979, p. 11).

Impact refers to the general effectiveness of the program in meeting the needs of the community as defined by the needs assessment data. Therefore, the same kinds of data are often collected in the needs assessment and the impact evaluation. Approaches mentioned in Booklet 2: Needs Assessment of this series are:

- KEY INFORMANT APPROACH* Soliciting views, opinions, and facts from key informants in the community.

*The term "key informant" is used in evaluation to refer to individuals who are in a key position to assess a program. Key informants may be community leaders, parents, teachers, social workers, etc.

- SURVEY RESEARCH APPROACH: Surveying selected populations in the community (survey research).

- RATES-UNDER-TREATMENT APPROACH: Analyzing institutional records to determine rates-under-treatment (socio-demographic characteristics of health and mental health clients).

- SOCIAL INDICATOR APPROACH: Inferring and estimating service delivery needs from descriptive statistics found in public records and reports. (Caution is advised here. While some indicators are valid for the Anglo-American culture or even for some other ethnic cultural group, they may not be for your target population).

Exhibit 2 graphically displays these approaches.

By comparing the needs assessment data and the impact data, changes in the target population and the community can be assessed. As previously mentioned, however, the methodologies for these two data collection efforts must generate comparable data. This requires some long range planning on the part of the funding agency, the program staff, and the evaluator.

Assessing long-range impact -- that is, proving that the drug abuse prevention program really "works" -- in a scientifically valid way is exceedingly difficult. As pointed out earlier, this is what policy makers and funding sources most often want from an evaluation. An impact evaluation, however, requires long-term sophisticated methodologies to allow for many factors that can influence or obscure the findings. This kind of evaluation is beyond the capabilities and resources of most individual programs and must be left to the larger programs or a national effort. It is not, therefore, discussed at any length in this booklet.

Environmental Considerations

Another important consideration in the evaluation of a program is its cultural and socio-political environment. In this regard, some things to be considered are:

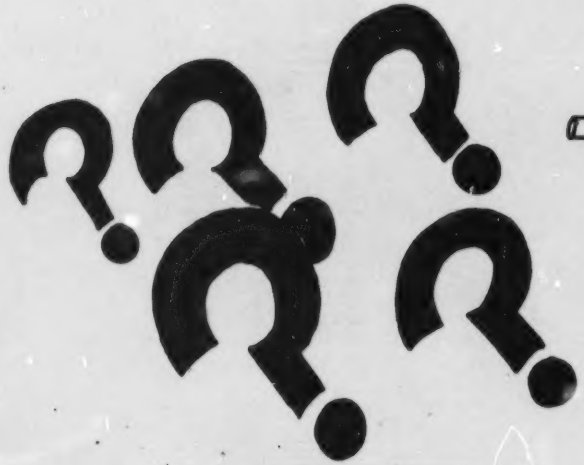
- the dominant culture of the community; i.e., who has power over the system and resources.

- the cultural orientation of the program; e.g., rural Black, migrant Puerto Rican, etc.

- the service delivery system within which the program functions; e.g., education, mental health, health, etc.

EXHIBIT 2
NEEDS ASSESSMENT

1. KEY INFORMANTS
2. RATES UNDER TREATMENT
3. SOCIAL INDICATORS
4. SURVEYS



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- the political climate of the community; i.e., to what extent are members of the culture allowed access to resources and power.

- the political climate of the service delivery system; e.g., does the program have the sanction of the community.

The socio-political environment can generate both positive and negative influences on the program. Awareness of these environmental influences is important to any program evaluation. See Booklet 2: Needs Assessment for a fuller discussion.

The Role of the Evaluator

An outside or third-party evaluator is in most instances, preferable to an internal evaluator because he/she is external to and independent of the system being evaluated and, therefore, should be more objective. However, a third-party evaluator is likely to be more costly than an internal evaluator.

The use of an external evaluator does not indicate that internal efforts are invalid. Program personnel in minority programs need to know that their evaluation efforts are meaningful and "truth" is not defined soley from the outside. They should be encouraged to learn more about measuring program influences and the elements and methodologies used in the evaluation process, so they can work effectively with an outside evaluator and/or produce internal products that meet their needs.

The "objectivity" of the evaluator is a major concern of minority program operators. Because prevention programs reach directly to the core of ethnic cultures and operate in the realm of values, family traditions, and social patterns, it is essential that any third-party evaluator take special care in understanding the life-style and cultural value systems of community members being studied. Bryon Kunisawa has developed a technique for assisting persons in assessing their awareness and sensitivity to other cultures. His Multicultural Survival Inventory, which is contained in Appendix A, can be used to assist third-party evaluators in conducting a self-assessment prior to working with a given community.

This inventory is suggested only as a potential tool. Because it implies an objective assessment derived from a Western European base, some persons may choose not to use it, or may use only a part of it.

Regardless of ethnic background, an evaluator for a minority drug prevention program should have the following characteristics:

- knowledge of and experience in using a variety of evaluation strategies;

- innovativeness in developing research designs for special populations;
- a track record for performing credible evaluations;
- a sensitivity to the ethnic and cultural context of the program;
- the ability to incorporate ethnic considerations into the evaluation design and instruments so that the social distance between the evaluators and the respondents is minimized;
- willingness to train and work with indigenous data collectors; and
- the ability to communicate and work well with the program staff.

There are several options concerning whether and under what circumstances to use a third-party evaluator or an internal evaluator. Exhibit 3 illustrates six options for conducting process and outcome evaluations using third-party and internal evaluators. The options vary by cost and degree of objectivity. In Option 1, the third-party evaluator conducts all activities related to the process and outcome evaluations including plan design, and the collection and analysis of the data. This option has an added advantage if the evaluator has the expertise to provide technical assistance to the project as part of the process evaluation. Third-party process evaluation with technical assistance is an approach often used for programs in other fields. In Option 2, the third-party evaluator designs the plans and analyzes the data for the process and outcome evaluations, but trains and supervises the internal evaluator or project staff to collect the data. The process evaluation is done by the internal evaluator in Option 3, while the outcome evaluation is done by the third-party evaluator. Although this is a frequently used approach, it can result in considerable duplication of effort if the two evaluations are not carefully coordinated. Option 4 represents a method that provides an acceptable amount of objectivity at a relatively low cost. In this approach the process evaluation is done by the internal evaluator. The third-party evaluator designs the plan and analyzes the data for the outcome evaluation, but trains and supervises the evaluator or project staff to collect the outcome evaluation data. Since the internal evaluator is doing much of the evaluation and data collection, there is an opportunity to coordinate the two evaluations and still maintain the objectivity required for the outcome evaluation. In Option 5, both the process and outcome evaluations are done internally. Only an internal outcome evaluation is done in Option 6. Both of the latter options will encounter problems concerning the credibility of evidence of program impact. For a small project with a limited budget, Option 4 has the most to offer. Option 2 is more preferable but is also more costly.

EXHIBIT 3

OPTIONS FOR USING THIRD-PARTY AND/OR INTERNAL EVALUATORS

	Option 1	Option 2	Option 3	Option 4	Option 5	Option 6
Third-Party Evaluator						
Designs process plan	X	X				
Collects process data	X					
Analyzes process data	X	X				
Designs outcome plan	X	X	X	X		
Collect outcome data	X		X			
Analyzes outcome data	X	X	X	X		
Internal Evaluator:						
Designs process plan			X	X	X	
Collects process data		X	X	X	X	
Analyzes process data			X	X	X	
Designs outcome plan					X	X
Collects outcome data		X		X	X	X
Analyzes outcome data					X	X

The evaluator should work closely with the program director and staff to ensure that ethnic and cultural aspects germane to the program are appropriately incorporated into the evaluation design. The staff should have input into the evaluation plan, the selection of a methodology, the selection or design of evaluation instruments, the data collection, and the analysis.

PLANNING FOR EVALUATION

Ideally, planning for evaluation begins when the program itself is being planned. If a needs assessment process such as that outlined in Booklet 2 of this series is followed, the program will have identified needs and defined the cultural and sociopolitical environment in which they exist. Program goals will have been determined after which objectives could be specified. Those objectives would be both clear and measurable as well as realistic in order to serve as the basis of the evaluation.

EXHIBIT 4	
WRITING CULTURALLY RELEVANT PREVENTION PROGRAM OBJECTIVES	
COMMON CONSIDERATIONS	CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS
Objectives should:	
1. Identify results or conditions to be achieved rather than activities to be performed.	1. How is achievement viewed and valued?
2. Be limited in time so as to provide milestones of achievement.	2. Are the project timelines realistic and attainable?
3. Be stated in terms of what is to be done rather than in terms of what is to be avoided.	3. Is there a history of having planned activities imposed on the community through negatively stated sanctions (religious, educational, etc.)?
4. Be designed to cover a single end result.	4. Is there universal agreement among the cultural group on the individual end result desired?
5. Readily indicate a data baseline.	5. Is there a realistic data base line? How can one be developed?
6. Be written in quantifiable terms that are measurable in terms of established standards.	6. Are there cultural standards? How can established standards be more inclusive?
7. Indicate the minimum level of achievement or "standard" that is acceptable.	7. Are the standards achievable as well as relevant to the culture? Has there been an acknowledgement of those standards by formal/informal leaders?
8. Fit within the framework of the overall goals and policies of the program.	8. Are the overall goals and policies in line with the culture?
9. Be realistic and attainable.	9. Realistic within cultural constraints? Attainable with respect to cultural needs and desires?
10. Be consistent with resources available and anticipated.	10. What resources are available within the culture? How can these resources be accessed?

It is critical that the evaluator, whether internal or external, and the key people related to a project understand and agree upon the definition of success with respect to each objective. The objectives, therefore, should be reviewed to ensure that they are realistic and feasible. There is a natural and understandable tendency to let enthusiasm for programs overcome common sense, and this leads to impossible objectives that may well portend the program's failure even before it starts. A drop-in center with a hotline, for example, cannot realistically expect users of that line to become self-actualized and more achievement oriented. This feasibility review should also cover any economic, political, or social constraints imposed by the dominant culture on the specific sub-culture that would impede achievement of the objectives. The importance of establishing objectives in the psycho-social realm that are reflective of those standards and attributes valued by the ethnic culture rather than those of the dominant culture cannot be emphasized strongly enough. Exhibit 4 summarizes considerations in writing culturally relevant prevention program objectives.

If objectives are realistic and culturally relevant, they should be examined again to ensure that they are also measurable. Such objectives specify the target population, the behavior they will exhibit (behavior is much easier to assess than attitudes, values, self-image), the numbers or percentages. Time and condition are two other elements of a measurable objective. Time merely means the date by which the results as defined are to be attained. The objective should also specify under what conditions the defined results will be obtained as well as conditions under which the results would not be expected. Anticipating such conditions in advance eliminates the appearance of looking for excuses after the evaluation is completed.

In developing measurable objectives, rigid or absolute values of project achievement are frequently less realistic than a range of such values. If the criterion for success, for example, is that 50 per cent of the target population will participate in alternative activities, should 49 per cent be considered failure to achieve the objective? It would be wiser to establish a minimum level (say 35 per cent) as well as the maximum anticipated (50 per cent).

Once the evaluator and program staff have analyzed the objectives and agreed upon the criteria and standards for success, they are ready to develop the balance of the evaluation plan. Other components in designing an evaluation are:

- Select the appropriate methodology;
- Determine availability of information;
- Determine how data will be collected, when, and by whom;

- Determine how data will be analyzed;
- Determine how findings will be used/presented; and
- Review and keep the evaluation plan current.

In general, a good evaluation plan is one which provides valid and reliable information for making the necessary decisions with the least disruption to the program and at the least cost. It should fit well and be compatable with the overall program design. The plan should also provide for adequate resources and support in terms of personnel, materials, time, and program cooperation. Providing inadequate support is a threat to the validity and reliability of the evaluation data and can be a waste of money. On the other hand, overly designed evaluation plans that require the collection of superfluous data should be avoided as they are often too costly and too disruptive to the program.

The steps in program evaluation are detailed, with appropriate exhibits, in the next section.

A helpful aid in all facets of planning and program operation is the Gantt chart. The Encyclopedia of Management defines the Gantt chart as follows:

> "The Gantt Chart is a visual management control device developed during World War I by Henry L. Gantt, one of the pioneers in scientific management. It is a linear calendar on which future time is spread horizontally and work to be done is indicated vertically."
>
> In any activity, the only constant is time, and therefore the scale of the Gantt chart is time -- future time -- the calendar spread horizontally across a sheet. Any suitable divisions and subdivisions of time can be used -- months, weeks, days or hours."

In addition, a sample Gantt chart of preliminary evaluation activities can be found in Appendix B.

ISSUES IN THE EVALUATION OF MINORITY PROGRAMS

The evaluation of minority programs raises several research issues in the following areas:

- identifying the most relevant variables for the evaluation design;
- maintaining reliability and validity;
- gaining entry to the minority community;
- gaining the support of the community;
- decreasing the social distance between program evaluators and respondents; and
- increasing the understanding of the evaluation results.

Quantitative and qualitative approaches to the issues are discussed under each of these headings below.

1. *Identifying the most relevant variables for the evaluation design.*

The most relevant variables for the evaluation of a minority drug abuse prevention program can be identified by using ethnographic and other investigative strategies in an evaluability assessment.

The purpose of this assessment is to plan for a more useful evaluation. During this period, program characteristics are identified, the completeness of records is assessed, the availability of respondents is investigated, constraints that will affect the evaluation are identified, and alternative methodologies are reviewed (Rutman, 1980).

Ethnographic methods are used to discover and explore different facets of the program within its cultural context. Preliminary hypotheses are formulated, reformulated, and confirmed in an iterative fashion. Behaviors and interactions are observed in naturalistic settings. (Rudes, Blair, et al., 1980).

The information from the evaluability assessment is then used to develop the research design. Researchers who conducted the assessment are used throughout the evaluation to increase the reliability and validity of the findings.

2. *Maintaining reliability and validity*

The ultimate measure of expected impact of a prevention program is that drug use was either prevented or reduced in the target population over a long term as a result of the program. Since long term reduction of drug use in the target population is usually beyond the scope of most program evaluations, interest often focuses on more immediate program outcomes such as changes in attitudes toward drugs or improved self-concepts. However, changes or improvements in human behavior may be attributable to many factors other than participation in a drug prevention program. The natural maturation of the individual is a strong influence in behavior improvement among children, adolescents, and young adults. Maturation can even be a factor in behavior change among adults. Because of the emphasis on the psycho-social realm in drug abuse prevention, most programs include objectives that address personality characteristics, attitudes and opinions, social or interpersonal behaviors. These are legitimate as long as they are defined in the context of the individual's culture. Care must be taken to avoid the all to frequent assumption that behavior within norms of another culture is itself deviant because it differs from the dominant culture.

A relatively controlled experimental design is required to reliably attribute effects on the target population to the program. Program administrators need this kind of credible evidence of program effects in order to make decisions regarding policy and funding. Thus, some form of quantitative methodology is needed (Rudes, et al., 1980).

A quasi-experimental design with comparison groups should be used to measure program effects on the target population if at all possible, because the use of comparison groups will provide the most credible evidence of the program's effects. In fact, the use of two comparison groups rather than one would provide stronger evidence of program effects for a minority program because the effects of cultural influences could be assessed. Using this approach, the first group would include program participants of whatever ethnic background the program serves (e.g., Puerto Rican program participants). Group two would be comprised of persons from the same ethnic background who did not participate in the program (e.g., Puerto Rican non-participants). Persons from the dominant culture who did not participate in the program would be included in group three (e.g., Anglo-American non-participants). It is assumed that the groups would be matched on such salient characteristics as age, sex, social class, academic achievement, etc. as much as possible.

Using a Puerto Rican program as an illustration, the following comparisons would be possible:

- Puerto Rican program participants with Puerto Rican non-participants;

- Puerto Rican program participants with Anglo-American non-participants; and

- Puerto Rican non-participants with Anglo-American non-participants.

These comparisons would supply information on how Puerto Ricans are doing in relation to each other, and how they are doing in relation to Anglo-Americans. In this manner, Puerto Rican ethnicity as a factor in the behavior can be evaluated to some degree and biases in measurement instruments may be more readily identified.

If it is only possible to have one comparison group, the group should be of the same ethnic background as the program participants. In such an instance, group three would not be used.

There are several methods for selecting comparison groups which are addressed in the evaluation literature and, therefore, will not be discussed in this document. Suffice it to say that whatever method is used, the criteria and methods for selection should be well documented and become part of the evaluation recordkeeping system. The record should indicate how the groups were selected, on what characteristics they were matched, and the statistical and analytical procedures used to account for variations within and between groups. The program evaluator should provide expertise in this area.

Quantitative methods that do not use comparison groups are also discussed in the evaluation literature, but these methods do not provide the credible evidence of program effects that use of comparison groups yields.

The validity and understanding of the process and outcome evaluation results can be enriched by using a quantitative methodology in conjunction with information obtained using qualitative methods. For example, in-depth, relatively unstructured interviews with key informants can provide a better understanding of the process evaluation findings. Interviews with or case studies of a sample of program participants can be a valuable aid in explaining program outcomes. Informal observation of, or participating in, community or advisory committee meetings is also useful.

3. Gaining entry to the minority community

It is very important to become familiar with the social organization and mores of the minority community within which a prevention program operates in order to conduct a needs assessment or evaluate the effectiveness of a program. There may be a need to conduct interviews with minority leaders, parents, or youth in the community. For example, Tsukashima

(1977, pp. 133-143) used a two stage research design. In the first stage, he used ethnographic methods to get a feel for the community and to identify significant variables. In the second stage, he conducted interviews with a random sample of community leaders. Strategies for gaining entry will vary considerably depending on the ethnic composition and characteristics of the community, the persons in the community one wishes to contact, and the objectives of the research.

Contacts can often be formed in the community through acquaintenances such as field workers, students, parents' groups, etc. If the same person's name is mentioned by several people, that person may be worth talking to.

Previous research indicates that it is important to establish an identity that satisfies the community and allows for maximum innovation for the researcher. It is also important to make the purpose of the research clear. Weiss (1977, pp. 120-132) found that the low key role of the naive but friendly stranger was effective with traditional, older Chinese but was suspect among young activists. Many minority activists find it difficult to tolerate uncommitted strangers. Weiss thinks that non-involvement may be viewed as a political stance by some groups.

It cannot be assumed that an ethnic community is homogeneous. The community may include a mixture of ethnic groups and within each ethnic group there will be differences by social class and the degree of assimilation of its members into the dominant culture, as well as generational differences. There also may be several conflicting factions in the community. The researcher's role will be interpreted differently by the different groups in the community and these interpretations may be deeply imbedded in the culture.

4. Gaining the support of the community

Closely related to gaining entry to the community is the problem of gaining community support for the evaluation. The importance of maintaining community support should not be underestimated. Community representatives have the means to influence funding agencies regarding the program and any research affiliated with it. The purpose of the evaluation is not only to provide information to the funding agency but also to improve services to the community and to provide information to the community regarding the effectiveness of the program.

As previously mentioned, the purpose of the evaluation should be made clear to the ethnic community from the beginning. An effort should be made to find out what type of information is of interest to members of the community and in what form they prefer it. Then the evaluation plan should be designed to provide for the information needs of all users including

members of the community.

Input from community members should be maintained throughout the evaluation process in order to increase the validity, understanding, and acceptability of the evaluation.

5. Decreasing the social distance between program evaluators and respondents

Effective communication with the minority target population a program serves is as crucial to a valid evaluation as it is to the successful implementation of the program. The evaluator must be able to tap the cultural perspective that influences individual behavior and translate it into the evaluation design, thus minimizing the social distance between the evaluator and the respondents. This means that the choice of language used in the evaluation should reflect the style and variety used by the target population. The type of information being collected and the manner in which it is collected should reflect the cultural perspective of the target population.

This is not an easy task because there will be differences in language and perspective within the same ethnic group and between different ethnic groups in the same community. Each program will have its own unique characteristics that must be understood before it can be adequately evaluated.

Ethnography provides a useful approach for maximizing effective communication between evaluators and persons involved in the evaluation. This methodology provides a mechanism for understanding the ethnic value structure manifested in verbal and physical communication which is crucial for eliciting valid evaluation information. Communication between evaluators and respondents, between the program staff and respondents, between the evaluators and the program staff, and other significant communication networks must be considered. The use of language and gestures are part of the communication system.

Research indicates that there are ethnic differences in the use of social and temporal space. For example, Asians typically do not maintain eye contact with authority figures, but rather look down a little. Also, Asians are not as touching oriented as some other cultural groups. The acceptable physical space between two people is greater for Asians than it is for Americans and Hispanics. Some Native Americans have culturally acceptable pauses or periods of silence in conversations, particularly between the time a question is asked and an answer is given. These periods of silence can easily be misinterpreted. There has been considerable research on other types of non-verbal communication (including the study of gesture, facial expressions, stance, and tone of voice). Some non-verbal communication is culturally based while some is based in the individual's personality. Thus, it is worth an investment of time for the

evaluator to become familiar with the cultural context of the program and incorporate the most relevant cultural features into the evaluation design.

SETTING UP EVALUATION DESIGNS

In this section we will highlight some of the key methods and basic considerations in building in evaluation to prevention program designs. Many of the steps illustrated were discussed in greater detail earlier. The purpose here is to assist you in placing all of the information presented in its appropriate perspective.

Steps in Program Evaluation

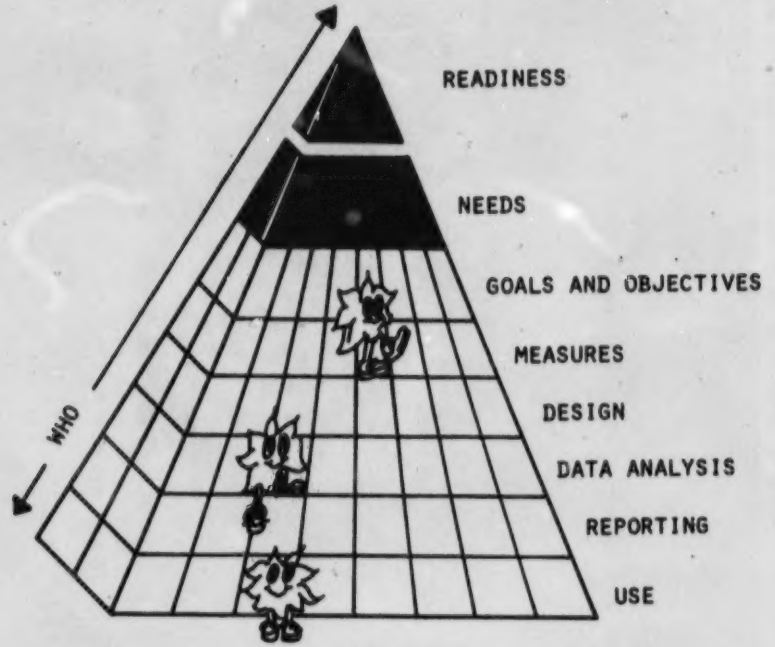
Exhibit 5 gives an overview of eight basic steps in program evaluation which include:

- Program Readiness
- Needs Assessment
- Setting Goals
- Measures
- Designs
- Data Analysis
- Reporting
- Use

The subsequent illustrations and discussions include additional details about each step. This will provide program planners with an "at-a-glance" description of these vital elements of an overall evaluation design.

The illustrations which follow were adapted from: Mitchell, M.E., and Rottner, L.H. Program Evaluation Handbook for Substance Abuse Professionals. University Park: Addictions Prevention Laboratory, Pennsylvania State University, College of Education. February 1979. Artwork by Noël van der Veen and Kay Anderson.

EXHIBIT 5
STEPS IN PROGRAM EVALUATION



Organizational Readiness

Exhibit 6 depicts the A VICTORY Model, developed for the National Institute of Mental Health, to determine the readiness of the program for an evaluation. As presented in Exhibit 5, program readiness is a result of defining the use of the evaluation, describing reporting requirements of the evaluation data, defining the data analysis plan, identifying the appropriate measures, setting goals and objectives, and assessing needs. The A VICTORY model further defines program readiness through a series of questions. Each of these questions should be thoroughly considered in the development phase of the evaluation design. Reflecting on each of these components can also uncover possible traps or pitfalls which could occur. Adding a positive note to a sometimes time consuming and complicated process, the A VICTORY model suggests that the program can be victorious in completing information and useful needs assessment and evaluation studies.

A - Refers to the organization's ability to conduct evaluation,

V - What things are valued by the program and the culture it serves?

I - What information is currently avaliable about the program? What additional research has to be conducted?

C - What circumstances, political and other will surround the operation of the program being evaluated?

T - Timing; where is the program in terms of its cycles? i.e., the proposal writing stage, program start-up, final reporting, etc.

O - Whose obligations are being met? The program director, the funding source, the general public?

R - Resistance; what are inhibiting forces? Are staff intimidated?

Y - Yield; what are the expectations of evaluation to be conducted?

EXHIBIT 6
ORGANIZATIONAL READINESS

A - ABILITY

V - VALUES
I - INFORMATION
C - CIRCUMSTANCES
T - TIMING
O - OBLIGATION
R - RESISTANCE
Y - YIELD

Needs Assessment

This important step has been covered adequately in a separate booklet in this series and in other sections of this booklet. (See Exhibit 2). At this stage in planning, however, a review of needs assessment data may help the evaluator to focus on essential problem areas. Program staff may be able to provide additional information which will also improve upon attitudes about the readiness of the program to do the evaluation.

Goals and Objectives

This step has also been covered in other sections (see Exhibits 4 and 7). This, however, is another step in planning, whereby a review which involves program staff, can be essential to setting up an effective design, and improving upon the readiness of the organization.

EXHIBIT 7
GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

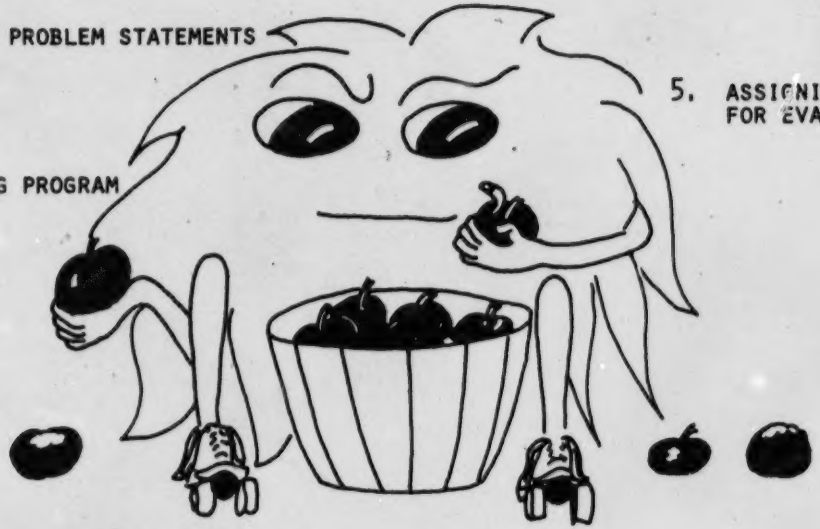
1. DECIDING WHO SHOULD BE INVOLVED

2. GENERATING PROBLEM STATEMENTS

3. IDENTIFYING PROGRAM GOALS

4. SPECIFYING MEASURABLE OBJECTIVES

5. ASSIGNING PRIORITIES FOR EVALUATION



Measurement in Evaluation

A blending of the assets of quantitative and qualitative measures may be the most viable strategy for evaluating multi-cultural drug abuse prevention programs. It appears to hold the most promise for being responsive to both the funding agency and the minority community.

NIDA's Prevention Planning Workbook states that it is desirable to measure a complex social phenomenon like drug abuse in several ways, that findings are more certain if the data are confirmed through several different methods such as questionnaires, direct observation, and analysis records (French et. al., 1979).

There are several other reasons for this multiple-measures approach. First, most programs with a prevention orientation typically cannot expect massive changes in client behavior or attitude. It is more likely that some particular segment of a client's attitude or behavior will be altered by the program experience; many others will not. Similarly, change along certain criterion dimensions will vary according to the individual. One client may improve school performance through better grades, another through increased participation in extra-curricular activities.

Multiple measures also provide for the opportunity to detect latent changes in clients. Changes which have not yet been manifested in behavior may be detected at the attitudinal-value level. This advantage is especially important in trying to evaluate program effectiveness over a brief period of time. For example, when attempting to evaluate the impact of a values clarification session, one often cannot afford to wait a period of several months or years to determine the full behavioral impact of the sessions. Rather, it is desirable to determine if the client has begun to reassess, if only mentally, his or her system of values. Instrument-based measures can be useful for such purposes.

Drug abuse prevention program evaluations have successfully utilized such approaches as direct observation, structured interviews and diaries kept by participants in conjuction with structured questionnaires. These methods allowed the evaluators to provide a very convincing picture of program impact as well as valuable and reliable recommendations.

EXHIBIT 8: MEASUREMENT IN EVALUATION

1. BEHAVIORAL OBSERVATIONS
2. PROGRAM RECORDS
3. WRITTEN INSTRUMENTS
   - ACHIEVEMENT TESTS
   - APTITUDE TESTS
   - INTEREST INVENTORIES
   - ATTITUDE SCALES
   - QUESTIONNAIRES
4. INTERVIEWS
5. PUBLIC DOMAIN RECORDS

Selecting Instruments

Exhibit 9 highlights the key points to be considered in selecting appropriate instruments for measuring program process and outcomes. A consideration among many, from a cultural perspective is the intended use of the data collected. Minority communities respond best when they are given assurances that they can have access to results of any questionnaires given and that such information will not be used in any way to their detriment.

There are several sources for measurement instruments which may be useful for a program evaluation. NIDA's Prevention Evaluation Guidelines discusses considerations in the selection of measurement instruments and gives some examples. NIDA's Drug Abuse Instrument Handbook lists 2,000 items from forty instruments and categorizes them in the following areas:

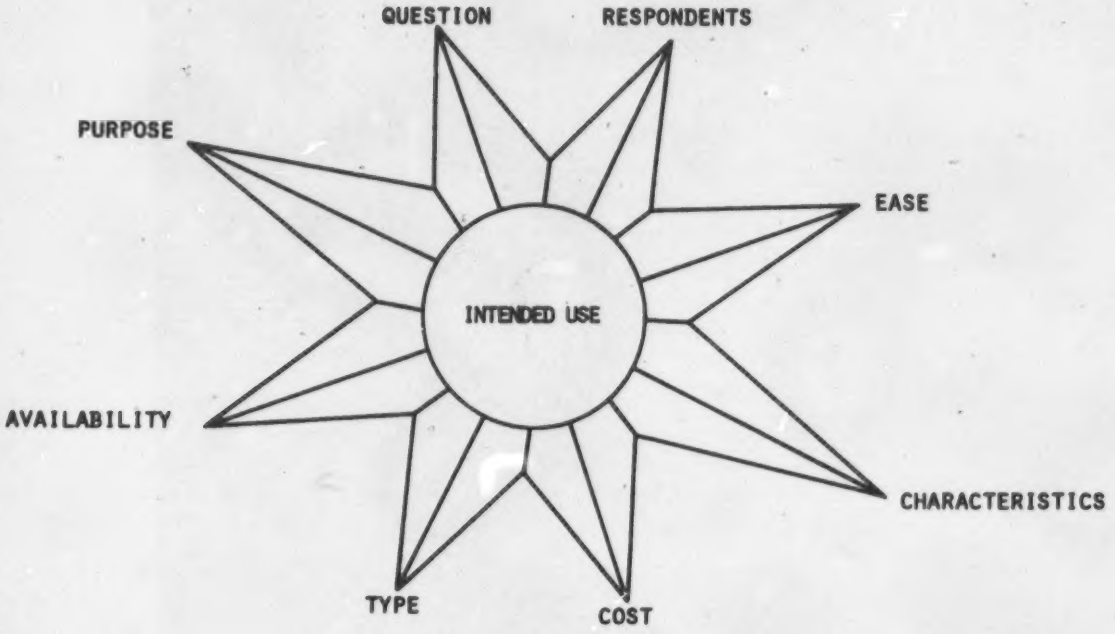
- demographic variables;
- interpersonal variables;
- intrapersonal variables; and
- drug variables.

Miller's (1978) Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement presents a general discussion of social research and a more detailed discussion of sociometric scales and indexes with examples of instruments. The discussion of the instruments is divided into the following categories:

- social status;
- group structure and dynamics;
- social indicators;
- measures of organizational structure;
- evaluation research and organizational effectivess;
- community;
- social participation;
- leadership in the work organization;
- morale and job satisfaction;
- scales of attitudes, values, and norms;
- family and marriages;

- personality measurements; and
- inventories of sociometric and attitude scales.

EXHIBIT 9
SELECTING INSTRUMENTS



Constructing Measures

Some traditional measures can often be modified and indeed some new ones can be developed to meet the program evaluation needs. Certainly technical assistance should be sought for more comprehensive measurement devices.

Sometimes, however, program staff may need to develop intake questionnaires, survey sheets or other simple measurement devices. Exhibit 10 illustrates several suggestions in constructing such measures.

- Parsimony - Use as few words as possible.
- Specificity - Get to the point.
- Singularity - Let each question or item speak to one subject only.
- Simplicity - Avoid the complicated or abstract.
- Sensitivity - Be careful not to offend, culturally or otherwise.
- Semantics - Make sure that the language is standard for the population served.
- Slant - Retain as much objectivity as possible.

EXHIBIT 10
CONSTRUCTING MEASURES

1. PARSIMONY
2. SPECIFICITY
3. SINGULARITY
4. SIMPLICITY
5. SENSITIVITY
6. SEMANTICS
7. SLANT

Designs

Experimental designs are most rigorous in controlling for rival causes and represent the ideal design. This design uses at least two groups, one that takes part in the project (i.e., experimental group) and one that does not (control group). If the experimental group performs better than the control group (gets better grades, has fewer disciplinary problems, holds jobs longer and if participants were randomly assigned to the two different groups, we could be fairly certain that the project "caused" the improved performance. The big ingredients in experimental designs is the random assignment of clients to the experimental and control groups (i.e., clients have an equal chance of being assigned to either group), because randomization controls all other rival causes. While randomized experimental designs are rigourous and scientifically elegant, unfortunately they often are impossible to execute in action settings because of the resources required, impractically, and ethical considerations. Exhibit 11 illustrates the various formats for this type of evaluation design.

Quasi-experimental designs do not satisfy the strict requirements of scientific experimentation, largely because of the inability to randomly assign people to projects. Consequently, they do not control for all outside effects as effectively as randomized experimental designs, usually leaving one or several rival causes uncontrolled. Quasi-experiments do have the advantage of being practical when conditions prevent true experimentation. Some quasi-experimental designs use available individuals or existing intact groups with similar characteristics to project clients in lieu of randomly formed groups. Nonequivalent control groups are commonly used in evaluations and a major issue in their use is how to make the comparison group as similar to the experimental as possible. Another often used quasi-experimental design is a time series where a series of measurements for an experimental project and a similar group is taken at periodic intervals before and after the interventions. This approach identifies whether there has been any change in patterns.

Pre-experimental designs are available when it is impossible to use even quasi-experimental designs. Their principal characteristic involves comparing a pre-project against a post-project outcome measure. Such a design provides insight into how effectively the project is delivering services, especially during the early stages of the project or when there is intense pressure to produce some kind of evaluative data within a short period of time. The inherent weakness of pre-experimental designs is that they fail to control for many rival causes. Thus, they leave considerable room for differing interpretations of how much change has occurred and how much was due to the operation of the project.

EXHIBIT 11
EXPERIMENTAL DESIGNS

- PRE TEST-POSTTEST — CONTROL GROUP DESIGN

  RANDOM ASSIGNMENT — MEASURE - - - PROGRAM - - - MEASURE

  MEASURE - - ALTERNATE PROGRAM - - - MEASURE

- POSTTEST ONLY — CONTROL GROUP DESIGN

  RANDOM ASSINGMENT — PROGRAM - - - - MEASURE

  ALTERNATE PROGRAM - - - MEASURE

EXHIBIT 12
QUASI - EXPERIMENTAL DESIGNS

- **TIME SERIES DESIGN**

  MEASURE 1 ⟶ 2 ⟶ 3 ⟶ PROGRAM ⟶ MEASURE 4 ⟶ 5 ⟶ 6

- **NON EQUIVALENT CONTROL GROUP DESIGN**

  MEASURE - - → PROGRAM - - → MEASURE

  MEASURE - → ALTERNATE PROGRAM - → MEASURE

EXHIBIT 13
PRE-EXPERIMENTAL DESIGNS

- ONE GROUP PRE/POSTTEST DESIGN
  MEASURE ---> PROGRAM ---> MEASURE

- STATIC GROUP COMPARISON
  PROGRAM ---> MEASURE
  ----------> MEASURE

- ONE SHOT CASE STUDY
  PROGRAM -----> MEASURE

Data Analysis

Preliminary data analysis may be done intermittently throughout the data collection period as a monitoring strategy. This is especially useful when qualitative and quantitative methods are being combined because each approach can be used to validate the findings of the other as the data become available.

Myers (1977) states that one of the deficiencies of conventional procedures is that data analysis and interpretation is done at the exclusion of the interviewers and other people who have first hand knowledge of the respondents. He suggests that the analysis should evolve "from shared understanding of social reality among researchers, consultants, interviewers, and respondents. Assumptions that each exchange occurred under identical circumstances are not imposed." (Myers, 1977, p.247). Myers used indigenous interviewers who provided input throughout his research study.

A very comprehensive, useful evaluation report can be produced by combining these qualitative and quantitative findings and focusing on the research questions in the analysis of the data.

In addition to the above important theoretical considerations some program planners may find the need to make some simple analyses of data collected. Exhibit 14 lists some simple descriptive techniques that can be used:

1. Dispersions - The spread of responses usually indicated by quantile deviation, standard deviations, range of 90-10 percentiles, etc.

2. Percentages - The proportion of times in any given set of scores that any one response occurs.

3. Averages - The sum set of responses or scores divided by the total number of scores.

4. Frequencies - A tabulation of scores from high to low (or low to high) showing the number of persons who obtain each score or group of scores.

EXHIBIT 14
DATA ANALYSIS

1. FREQUENCIES
2. PERCENTAGES
3. AVERAGES
4. DISPERSION

Presenting Data and Reporting Evaluation Results

The results of the evaluation (both process and outcome) should provide information on 1) whether or not the program succeeded in doing what it was planned to do, 2) how well it did it, and 3) new information discovered. The results may not identify a clear path to program improvement, but they should provide information on the program's strengths and weaknesses which can suggest strategies for improving effectiveness.

The importance of reporting the evaluation results cannot be overstated since it has the functions of:

- being the official record of the evaluation;
- answering the evaluation questions;
- describing the program being evaluated;
- describing the steps in the evaluation;
- explaining the procedures used;
- presenting the evaluation findings;
- drawing conclusions about the findings;
- identifying a program's strengths;
- pointing out a program's weaknesses;
- identifying areas where change is needed;
- establishing a basis for making crucial decisions; and
- presenting new findings.

Various audiences for the report should be considered when writing it. Audiences may include federal, state, or local administrators, the program staff and participants, and members of the community. The following separate volumes of the report should be considered:

Part 1. An overall Executive Summary for administrators and decision-makers. The report should not exceed ten pages. It should be easily readable and free of jargon. The evaluation results and possible recommendations should be presented within the context of national and state prevention policy.

Part 2. A full Technical Report for administrative technical staffs, evaluators of other programs, and future evaluators of this program. The report should include all of the procedures used throughout the evaluation process in detail. It should also include

EXHIBIT 15

PRESENTING DATA

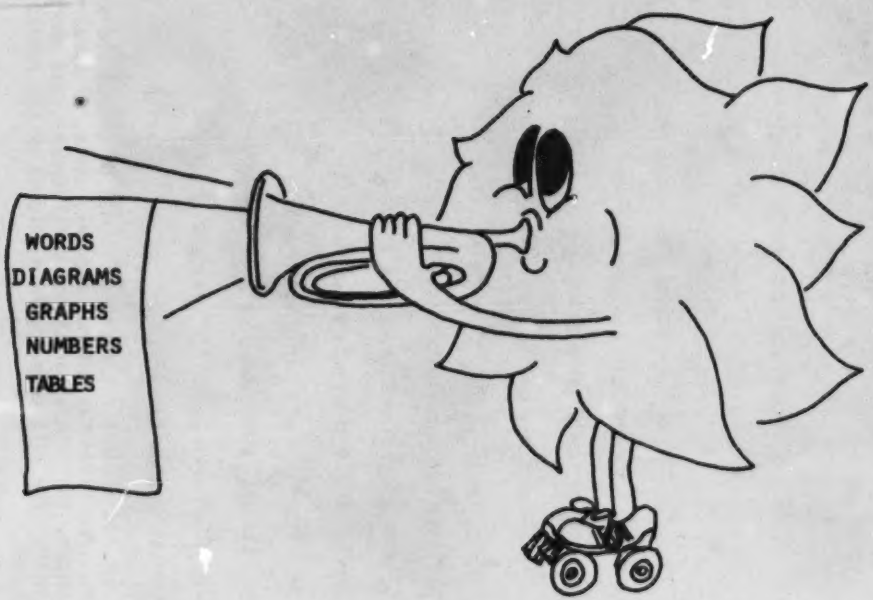


EXHIBIT 16
REPORTING EVALUATION RESULTS

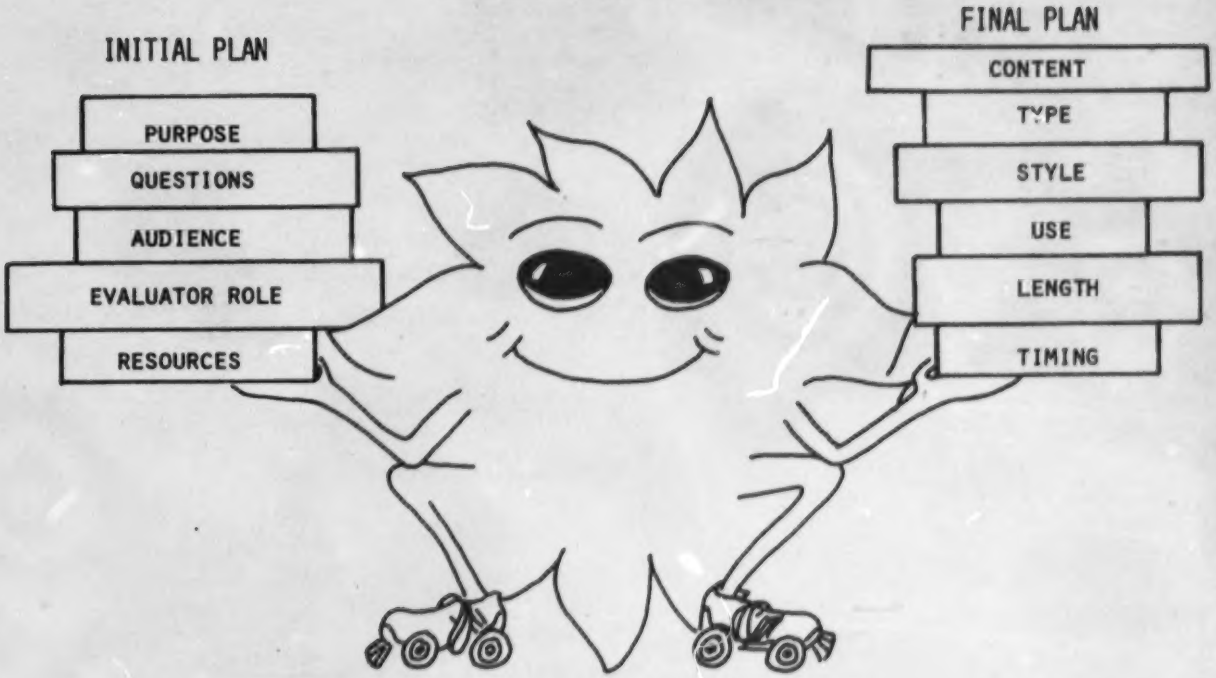
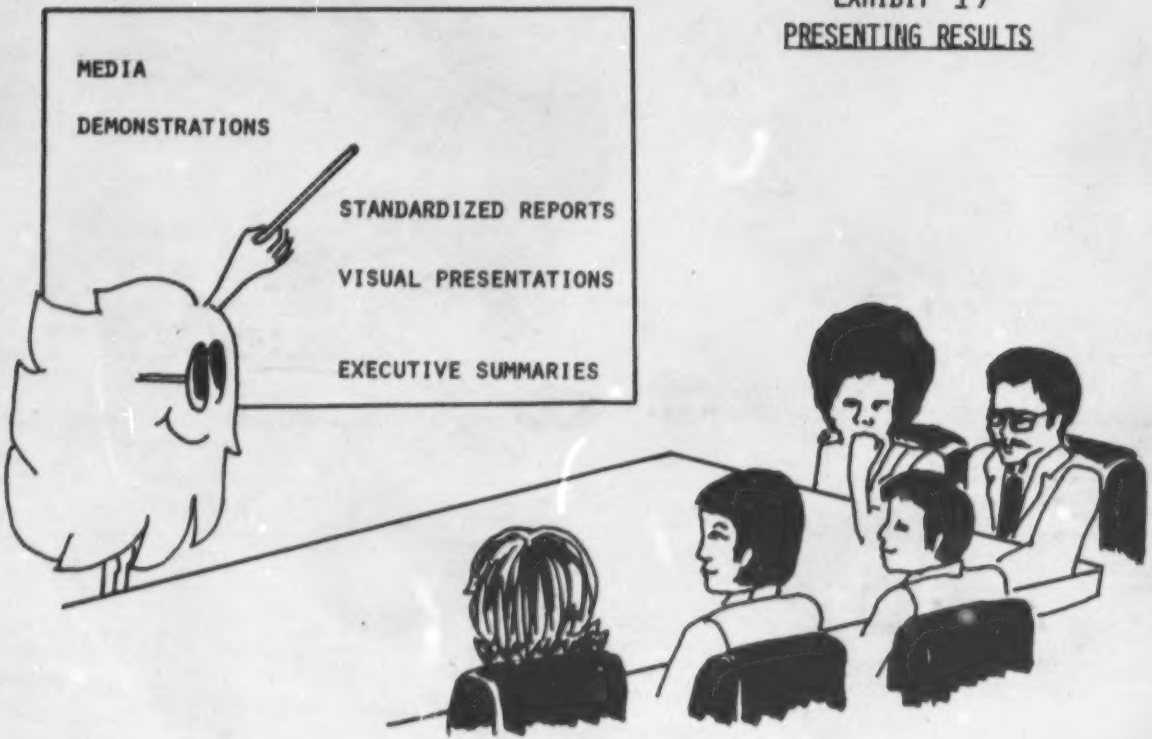


EXHIBIT 17

PRESENTING RESULTS



the findings, suggestions for program improvement, and recommendations for future evaluations of the program.

Part 3. A report to the Community. This report should be non-technical. It should be presented in a style and language that is comprehensive and interesting to the ethnic community. Often a format that presents summary findings interspersed with short case studies is the most effective. See Exhibits 15 and 16.

SUMMARY

The purpose of this booklet is to encourage the thoughtful use of evaluation as a management tool. Three levels of evaluation are discussed: process, outcome, and impact. A process evaluation is used to assess program implementation. An outcome evaluation assesses the short term or immediate effects of the program on the target population while overall program effectiveness is the concern of an impact evaluation. These levels of evaluation are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Impact evaluations however, require long-term, sophisticated methodologies which are beyond the resources of most individual programs and are, therefore, not discussed at any length.

Regardless of the level of evaluation, it is essential that the planning and implementation consider the cultural and socio-political context of the program. Equally important, the evaluator, whether third-party or internal, must be sensitive to that context. S/he must work closely with the program's staff in reviewing the objectives to ensure that they are feasible, culturally relevant, and measurable. It is critical to the success of the evaluation effort that the evaluator and program staff agree upon what is to be measured and the criteria for success.

Once the criteria for success are clearly defined, the program staff and evaluator can determine what data are needed and how they will be obtained. Some data may already be available from the needs assessment and other sources in the community. Additional data may be obtained through utilization of multiple quantitative and qualitative approaches. Since many standard instruments are not relevant or valid for various ethnic groups, it may be necessary to revise them or even develop new ones. Various technical assistance resources are available to aid prevention programs in doing so.

An appropriate design for the evaluation must also be selected. NIDA's Prevention Planning Workbook details three: experimental, quasi-experimental, and pre-experimental. Experimental designs are the most scientifically rigorous but often cannot be implemented in the real world of social change programs. Quasi-experimental designs are more flexible and usually more feasible for prevention programs.

Data collected in the evaluation must then be analyzed and prepared for presentation.

Basically, there are two approaches to analyzing data: quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative approach is the analysis of numerical data. Qualitative data which involve descriptive, less measurable subjective matters should not be

overlooked. Regardless of the specific techniques, data analysis must make allowances for controlling culturally sensitive variables. Although analysis techniques may be purely statistical and culture free, interpretation of the data is not.

Evaluation findings can then be presented in a series of reports designed for specific audiences. An executive summary might be prepared for policy and decision-makers; a detailed technical report for program staff and other evaluators; and a third report for the ethnic community.

Well designed, culturally relevant evaluations of drug abuse prevention programs lead not only to program improvements but also to advancements in the state of the art in prevention and evaluation research in multicultural communities.

APPENDIX A

MULTICULTURAL SURVIVAL INVENTORY **

I. PERSONAL

A. AGE _____

B. SEX _____

C. AGENCY _____

D. IDENTITY (HOW DO YOU PERCEIVE YOURSELF) _____

II. CULTURE (OWN/WORKING WITH) _____

A. VALUE SYSTEM (WHAT'S IMPORTANT)

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

B. MAJOR PROBLEMS/CONCERNS

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

C. POSITIVE ATTRIBUTES

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

** DEVELOPED BY BYRON KUNISAWA, MTO ASSOCIATES, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.

D. NEGATIVE ATTRIBUTES

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

E. MAJOR DIFFERENCES FROM THE DOMINANT CULTURE

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

F. IDENTIFY FACTORS OF SUPPORT FOR AN INDIVIDUAL

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

G. IDENTIFY FACTORS THAT CONSTRAIN OR HINDER INDIVIDUAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT (IF ANY)

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

H. IDENTIFY THE FIVE MOST STRESSFUL ELEMENTS THAT EXIST FOR PEOPLE IN THE CULTURE

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

I. IDENTIFY FIVE CULTURALLY ACCEPTABLE WAYS FOR COPING WITH THE ABOVE STRESSFUL ELEMENTS

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

J. IDENTIFY WHAT IS HIGHLY PRIZED AND/OR RESPECTED BY THE CULTURE

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

K. LIST THE FIVE MOST DIFFICULT ASPECTS ABOUT BEING A FEMALE IN THIS CULTURE

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

L. LIST THE FIVE MOST DIFFICULT ASPECTS ABOUT BEING A MALE IN THIS CULTURE

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

III. SURVIVAL IN THE DOMINANT CULTURE (WESTERN EUROPEAN)

A. SOCIAL PROBLEMS (INTERACTING, RELATING TO, ETC.)

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

B. ECONOMIC PROBLEMS

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

C. POLITICAL PROBLEMS

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

D. FAMILY RELATED PROBLEMS

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

E. PROFESSIONAL/CAREER PROBLEMS

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

F. IDENTIFY THE FIVE MOST IMPORTANT SURVIVAL SKILLS (IN RANK ORDER)

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

APPENDIX B

GANTT CHART OF PRELIMINARY EVALUATION ACTIVITIES

This GANTT chart illustrates a time frame for the first evaluation of a relatively large program. It can be adjusted for smaller programs. This chart should be integrated into the overall program management GANTT chart. It is based on the assumption that a pre/posttest or time series approach and at least one comparison group will be used. It is also assumed that a third-party evaluator will be used. These assumptions are undoubtedly idealistic for most programs, but a walk through the GANTT chart will illustrate some of the tasks and issues that must be addressed in the first year of an evaluation.

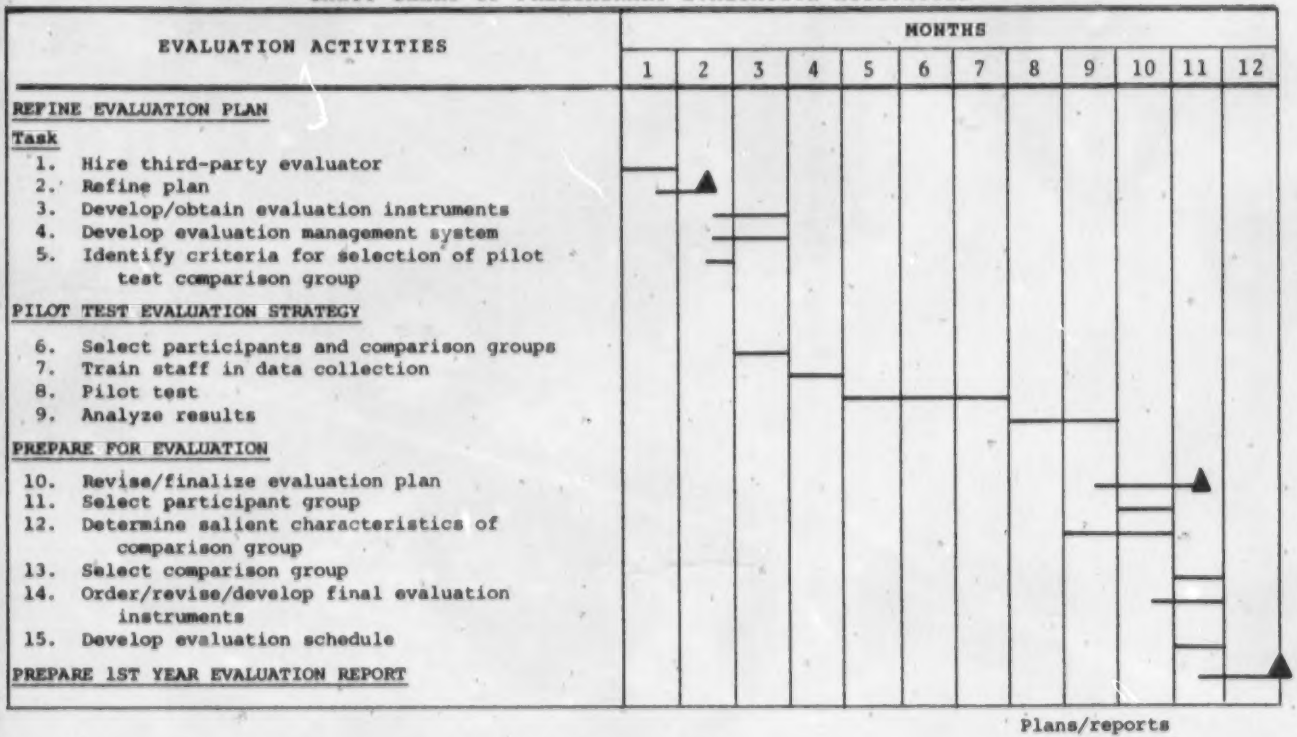
In Task 1 the evaluator is hired. If a third-party evaluator is being selected through competitive bidding, at least one month will be required to accept and review bids. Three weeks are allotted for refining the evaluation plan (Task 2). This is based on the assumption that a preliminary, relatively general evaluation plan was developed and incorporated into the management plan prior to program start-up. Such plans are often required in a proposal. However, the evaluator working with the project director should refine the plan and develop it in more detail. This should include formulating a series of research questions that are to be addressed. The research questions should be geared to the informational needs of decision-makers and other audiences.

Questionnaires, interview guides, and other evaluation instruments will take some time to develop or obtain. The GANTT chart allows five weeks for this task (Task 3). Concurrently, plans should be made for managing the evaluation (Task 4). For example, a recordkeeping system for the evaluation should be designed so that it is compatible with the overall recordkeeping system of the program. The evaluation should be planned so that much of the data are routinely collected and recorded in order to minimize the data collection burden on the staff. This holds true particularly for process data such as times and types of services provided to individuals or cooperative arrangements made with other agencies. The collection of superfluous data should be avoided because it can become too cumbersome.

The GANTT chart provides two weeks for the task of identifying criteria for the selection of the pilot test comparison group (Task 5). The selection of participant and comparison groups for the pilot test (Task 6) may take a month. Staff should then be trained for the data collection (Task 7). Three months are provided in the GANTT chart for the pilot test data collection (Task 8). This time line is based on using one participant group and one comparison with thirty or more persons in each group. Two months are scheduled for data processing and analysis of the results (Task 9).

APENDIX B

GANTT CHART OF PRELIMINARY EVALUATION ACTIVITIES



In Task 10, approximately six weeks are provided to revise and finalize the evaluation plan for the next year. The selection of participants for the evaluation (Task 11) can begin prior to finalizing the second year's evaluation plan. Criteria for the selection of participant and comparison groups should be included in the evaluation plan for the second year. The most salient characteristics for matching program participants to comparison group members (Task 12) can be determined in the analysis of the pilot test results. When the pilot test is conducted, participants and comparisons are usually matched on what are assumed to be the most important characteristics. Following the pilot test, it should be possible to select these groups on the most relevant characteristics. Comparison group members can be selected (Task 13) following completion of the previous task.

Evaluation instruments are ordered, revised, or developed in the eleventh month (Task 14), and the schedule for the next year's evaluation is developed in the last six weeks of the first year in Task 15. The first year evaluation report will consist of the results from the pilot test and plans for the next year's evaluation.

Some of the most important things to remember when developing evaluation plans are:

- to use the first year of the program for evaluation planning and pilot testing;
- to use a comparison group or groups if possible; and
- not to expect credible evidence of effects on program participants the first year of the evaluation.

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